本地种云南柳与外来种旱柳(杨柳科)的同倍体自然杂交*

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摘要:对分布于云南的旱柳(Salix matsudana)和云南柳(Salix cavaleriei)之间的一个自然杂交种进行了研究。野外观察表明疑似杂交种异蕊柳(Salix×heteromera)形态上介于旱柳和云南柳之间,并得到了基于叶形态特征的主成份分析的印证。核基因 ITS 序列数据表明这三个种存在 ITS 序列的种内和个体内的多态性,且疑似杂交种的 ITS 序列的基因型总是疑似亲本的嵌合体。因此可以判定异蕊柳是旱柳和云南柳的自然杂交后代。流式细胞分析表明这三个种均为四倍体,因而,本杂交事件为同倍体杂交。基于四个叶绿体序列片段的数据表明本自然杂交事件是不对称的,云南柳是异蕊柳的母本。常见外来种旱柳与稀有本地种云南柳的杂交可能导致稀有种云南柳的濒危甚至灭绝。研究表明柳属植物的引种应非常谨慎。

关键词:柳属;同倍体杂交;不对称杂交;分子证据

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Homoploid Hybridization between Native Salix cavaleriei and Exotic Salix matsudana (Salicaceae)

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Abstract: Natural hybridization between Salix matsudana and Salix cavaleriei was investigated based on populations from Yunnan, China. Field observations revealed that the putative hybrid, S. × heteromera had intermediate morphologies between S. matsudana and S. cavaleriei. This was further confirmed by principal component analysis. Sequence data of nuclear rDNA internal transcribed spacer region showed both intraspecific and intragenomic polymorphisms in all the three species, and S. × heteromera showed a strong additive pattern between its suspected progenitors at all nucleotide sites of the genotypes identified. Therefore, S. × heteromera was confirmed to be a natural hybrid between S. cavaleriei and S. matsudana. Flow cytometry analysis indicated that all the three species are tetraploid, and the hybridization was homoploid. Sequence data from four chloroplast datasets indicated that the hybridization was asymmetric, with S. cavaleriei as the maternal parent. The hybridization between the exotic common species S. matsudana and native rare species S. cavaleriei might increase the risk of endangerment and even extinction, indicating that the

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introduction of Salix species should be made very cautiously.

Key words: Salix; Homoploid hybridization; Asymmetry; Molecular evidence

Natural hybridization is prevalent and plays an important role in the evolution of plants; the possible outcomes of hybridization include breakdown of isolating barriers; introgression; increased genetic diversity: and the origin of adaptations, ecotypes, and species (Coyne and Orr, 2004; Soltis and Soltis, 2009; Abbott et al., 2013). Natural hybrids usually show mosaic morphological characters of their parental species; therefore, the intermediate of parental characters in morphology can be used to identify natural hybrids. However, this may not always be true, because not all morphological characters have genetic basis. Further, when there is introgression, a hybrid may be similar to one of its parental species and therefore difficult to identify (Rieseberg et al., 1993; Rieseberg and Wendel, 1993). Besides, some morphological intermediates might form via convergent evolution (Rieseberg and Wendel, 1993; Rieseberg et al., 1999). Molecular studies have shown that interspecific hybridization is more prevalent than that indicated by morphological and cytogenetic evidence, as reviewed by Rieseberg (1997) and Arnold (1997). Many natural hybrid species have been confirmed by molecular investigations, and numerous historical hybridizations have also been revealed (e.g., Hardig et al., 2000; Kaplan and Fehrer, 2007; Zha et al., 2008).

The genus Salix L., collectively known as willows, is a well-known taxonomically difficult plant taxon that consists of some 460-520 species worldwide, which are mainly distributed in the north temperate areas. Willows have high economic value; species of this genus can be used in ornamentals, fuel, and medicines, and are good sources of energy biomass as well (Fang et al., 1999; Skvortsov, 1999; Argus, 2010). Salix is taxonomically difficult because of common natural hybridization, simple flowers that seldom present stable reproductive traits, dioecism, and large phenotypic variation (Rechinger,

1992; Skvortsov, 1999; Argus, 2010). As reviewed by Argus (2010), there are about 120 Salix hybrids that have been recognized in the North American flora (113 native Salix species are recorded in North American flora), and about half of these are relatively common. Indigenous species hybridize not only with each other, but also with introduced willows species. For example, the introduced Old World species Salix alba L. is documented to form natural hybrids with indigenous species Salix lucida Muhlenberg and Salix nigra Marshall in New World (Argus, 2010). Despite the prevalent natural hybridization in Salix, most Salix hybrids were identified by morphological evidence, which might not be reliable as mentioned above, and seldom have been confirmed by molecular evidence. A morphological and molecular study by Hardig et al. (2000) revealed that about one-third plants originally identified as Salix eriocephala were possible introgressants. An asymmetrical natural hybridization of Populus, a closely related genus of Salix, was identified by Hamzeh et al. (2007).

China is rich in *Salix* species, with about 275, having been recorded (Fang et al., 1999); some of the species described in *Flora of China* might be natural hybrids. In our previous study, we found that *Salix heteromera* Handel-Mazzetti, a tree willow distributed in limited areas of Yunnan province, China, always and almost only coexists with other two tree willows, the invasive *Salix matsudana* Koidzumi and the indigenous *S. cavaleriei* H. Léveillé under natural conditions (Fig. 1). Moreover, *S. × heteromera* is morphologically (e. g., leaf morphology, stamen number, ovary stipe) intermediate between *S. matsudana* and *S. cavaleriei* (Table 1, Fig. 2). Therefore, we suspected that *S. × heteromera* might be a natural hybrid between *S. matsudana* and *S. cavaleriei*.

In this study, we used morphological and molecular methods to elucidate whether $Salix \times heteromera$

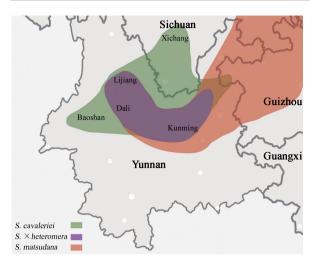


Fig. 1 Distribution of *Salix* × *heteromera*, *S. cavaleriei*, and *S. matsudana* in and around Yunnan province, China

is a natural hybrid between *S. matsudana* and *S. cavaleriei*, the direction of the possible hybridization and its impact on natural populations of these species.

1 Materials and methods

1. 1 Plant material

We selected five samples of the putative hybrid Salix × heteromera and three samples each of its suspected parents S. cavaleriei and S. matsudana from Lashihai, Lijiang, Yunnan, China (26°53′51″ N, 100°7′56″ E) for sequencing of nuclear rDNA (nrDNA) internal transcribed spacer (ITS) and cp-DNA rbcL, matK, trnD-T, and atpB-rbcL regions. One sample each of the above species was used for

Table 1 Morphological comparison of the putative Salix × heteromera with the suspected parents S. cavaleriei and S. matsudana

Taxa		Characters		El
Taxa	Leaf (length × width)/cm	Number of stamens	Gynophore	 Flowering time
S. cavaleriei	4-11 × 2-4	6-8	long	March to the end of June
$S. \times heteromera$	$5-7 \times 1.2-1.4$	2-5	short	March to April
S. matsudana	$1.5-3 \times 0.6-0.8$	2	none	March to April



Fig. 2 Leaf morphologyof S. cavaleriei, S. × heteromera and S. matsudana

flow cytometry analysis. In all, 107 specimens from four localities were used for morphological analysis, i. e., Lashihai, Heilongtan (26°52′54″ N, 100°14′ 1″ E), Suhe (26°47′29″ N, 99°48′58″ E), all in Lijiang, and Xizhou (25°51′14″ N, 100°8′ E) in Dali, Yunnan province, China (see Table 2 for details). All voucher specimens are deposited at the Herbarium of Kunming Institute of Botany, Chinese Academy of Sciences (KUN).

1.2 Morphological Analysis

Principal components analysis (PCA) of leaf morphology was based on five leaf characters, i. e., maximum blade length (L), maximum blade width (W), petiole length (PL), blade length from the base to the point of maximum width (BL), and blade length-width ratio (LWR). At least five mature leaves of each specimen were measured, and the average values were used in PCA.

The PCA included data standardized for each trait and was performed using a correlation matrix without rotation; factor axes that described less than 11% of the overall variation in leaf morphology were excluded from the analysis. The results were analyzed using software SPSS 11.5 (SPSS, 2002).

1.3 Molecular analysis

1. 3. 1 DNA extraction, PCR amplification, and sequencing

Total DNAs were isolated using the cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) method of Saghai-Maroof et al. (1984) as modified by Doyle and Doyle (1987). The nrDNA ITS regions were amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using primers "ITS-a" and "ITS-d" (Leskinen and Alstrom-Rapaport, 1999). The direction of hybridization was determine by amplifying partial sequences of the chloroplast trnD-T, atpB-rbcL intergenic region, and rbcL-matK gene by using the following primes: "trnDGUCF" and "trnTGGU" for trnD-T (Demesure et al., 1995), "atpB-1" and "rbcL-1" for atpB-rbcL (Chiang et al., 1998), "1F" and "1024R" for rbcL (Lledo et al., 1998), and "3F_KIM f" and "1R_KIM r" for matK (Janzen, 2009).

PCR was performed using a PTC- 100^{TM} programmable thermal cycler (MJ Research, Inc.) in a total volume of 25 μ L containing 15 μ L Power Taq PCR MasterMix (BioTeke Corporation), 8.5 μ L ddH $_2$ O, 1 μ L of each primer, and 1.5 μ L DNA template. The PCR conditions included an initial denaturation for 3 min at 94 °C , followed by 35 cycles of 30 s at 94 °C for template denaturation, 30 s at 50 °C for primer annealing, 1 min at 72 °C for extension, and a final extension period of 10 min at 72 °C. The PCR products were purified using the PCR Products Purification Kit (Biotype Corporation),

Table 2 Samples used for sequencing and GenBank accession numbers

T	77 1 *		GenBan	k accession number	s	
Taxon	Voucher*	ITS	rbcL	matK	atpB-rbcL	trnD-T
	C518	KF209139-146	KF209231	KF209254	KF209243	KF209265
Salix cavaleriei	C519	KF209147-155	KF209232	KF209255	KF209244	KF209266
	C1038 **	KF209128-138	KF209230	KF209253	KF209242	KF209264
	C1030	KF209156-165	KF209233	KF209256	KF209245	KF209267
	C1047	KF209166-174	KF209235	KF209257	KF209246	KF209268
$S. \times heteromera$	C1048 **	KF209175-184	KF209236	KF209258	KF209247	KF209269
	C1056	KF209185-193	KF209237	KF209259	KF209248	KF209270
	C1058	KF209194-203	KF209238	KF209260	KF209249	KF209271
	C523	KF209222-229	KF209241	KF209263	KF209252	KF209274
c . 1	C1034	KF209204-212	KF209239	KF209261	KF209250	KF209272
S. matsudana	C1042 **	_	KF209240	KF209262	KF209251	KF209273
	C1099	KF209213-221	_	_	_	_

^{*} All specimens collected by Jiahui Chen in Lashihai, Lijiang, Yunnan, China, and deposited in Herbarium of Kunming Institute of Botany, Chinese Academy of Sciences (KUN); ** Samples used for flow cytometry

following the manufacturer's instructions. The purified PCR products of nrDNA ITS were ligated to the pUC18 plasmid vector, and the recombinant plasmids were cloned into competent *Escherichia coli* DH5α cells (Biotype Corporation). The bacteria that contained recombinant plasmid were sequenced directly, and at least 8 different clones of each sample were used. Sequences were assembled by Geneious (Drummond *et al.*, 2011) and aligned with Muscle (Edgar, 2004), followed by manual correction using Geneious 5.4 (Drummond *et al.*, 2011). Average sequence divergence (i. e., pairwise distance) was estimated using Kimura's (1980) two-parameter method in Mega 5.2 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011).

1. 3. 2 Determination of ploidy using flow cytometry DNA ploidy level of the putative hybrid $Salix \times$

heteromera and its suspected progenitors S. cavaleriei and S. matsudana was determined by comparing their DNA contents with those of taxa of known ploidy level; we used S. gracilistyla Miquel as a reference sample, which has been reported to be diploid with 2n = 2x = 38 (Rudyka, 1990). To avoid the risk of error due to instrument drift, we simultaneously chopped the test samples and reference sample. Leaves (50 mg silica gel dryed leaf) of reference and test plants were placed in a plastic petri dish containing 1 000 µL WPB (0.2 mol·L⁻¹ Tris HCl, 4 mmol \cdot L⁻¹ MgCl₂ \cdot 6H₂O, 2 mmol \cdot L⁻¹ ED-TA Na₂· 2H₂O, 86 mmol·L⁻¹ NaCl, 10 mmol·L⁻¹ sodium metabisulfite, 1% PVP-10.1% Triton X-100, pH 7.5) for 30 min. Next, they were chopped using a razor blade, passed each sample through a 30-µm filter, and added 150 µL of staining solution (500 µg·mL⁻¹ RNase A, 1. 12 mg·mL⁻¹ PI) for 15 min in dark. Each sample was run for 2-3 min on Partec CyFlow Space flow cytometer. The peak of the reference sample was adjusted to be located approximately at channel 100, so that the relative ploidy of the unknown samples could be determined by comparing the peak positions of reference sample and the test sample by using the following ratio (Doležel et

al., 2007):

Sample ploidy = Reference ploidy \times

mean position of the sample peak mean position of the reference peak

2 Resutls

2. 1 Morphological analysis

The result of PCA of leaf morphology (Fig. 3) indicated that the putative hybrid $Salix \times heteromera$ is an intermediate between and separate from its suspected parents $S.\ cavaleriei$ and $S.\ matsudana$ along the first factor, which accounted for 84% of the variance observed.

2. 2 Genotypes of ITS

The complete ITS regions of $Salix \times heteromera$, S. cavaleriei, and S. matsudana were sequenced; the length varied from 593 to 599 base pairs (bp), and the aligned length was 603 bp (Fig. 4). Both intraspecific and intra-individual polymorphism were detected in all the three species sequenced except for a specimen of S. cavaleriei (c518), which had only one ITS repeat type. In all, 11 ITS DNA variations (6 in ITS1 and 5 in ITS2 region; 2 are indels and the other 9 are point mutations) were recognized in the three species. The putative hybrid $S. \times hetero$ mera showed nucleotide additivity of its suspected parents S. cavaleriei and S. matsudana at all variation sites of the 11 genotypes. Further, it showed the most average sequence divergence that equaled the sum average sequence divergence of its suspected parents (see Table 3 and Fig. 4 for details).

2. 3 Chloroplast haplotypes

In all, 11 haplotypes (4, 1, 2, 4 for atpB-rbcL, matK, rbcL, trnD-T, respectively) were detected in the chloroplast regions sequenced; 10 of the haplotypes of the putative hybrid Salix × heteromera were identical to those of S. cavaleriei, and one haplotype (a deletion in the atpB-rbcL region) was exclusive to S. × heteromera (see Table 4 for details). Therefore, the hybrid S. × heteromera had S. cavaleriei as the plastid donor parent, and the hybridization was unidirectional, i. e., asymmetrical.

2. 4 Ploidy level

Flow cytometry analysis of intact leaf nuclei indicated that all the three species were tetraploid (Fig. 5). The diploid standard sample (*Salix gracilistyla*) nuclei produced a single peak that appeared at channel 100, with average coefficient of variation (CV) of 9. 24%, and the peak mean channel of the three test samples were around 200 (*S. cavaleriei*: X = 198. 22, CV = 4.50%; $S. \times heteromera$: X = 208. 22, CV = 4.19%; S. matsudana: X = 209. 57, CV = 5.22%). Thus, the three species were concluded to be tetraploid with the chromosome number of 2n = 4x = 76. Our result is consistent with the reported ploidy of S. matsudana (Suda, 1958, 1963).

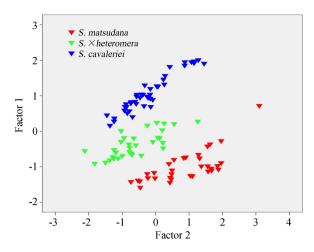


Fig. 3 Plot of leaf characters according to the first and second factor scores derived from PCA (factor 1 described 84% and factor 2 described an additional 11% of the overall variation)

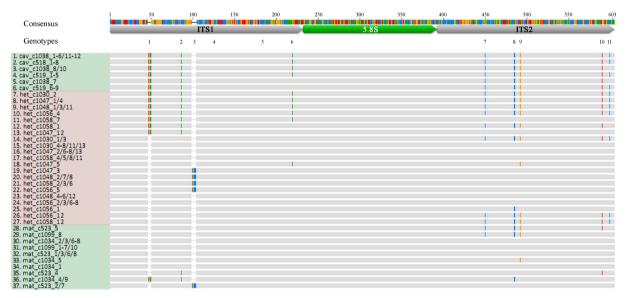


Fig. 4 Schematic diagram of sequence alignments of the ITS region in Salix × heteromera, S. cavaleriei, and S. matsudana. Sequence names are presented as "species name_voucher_clone number" (cav = S. cavaleriei, het = Salix × heteromera, mat = S. matsudana)

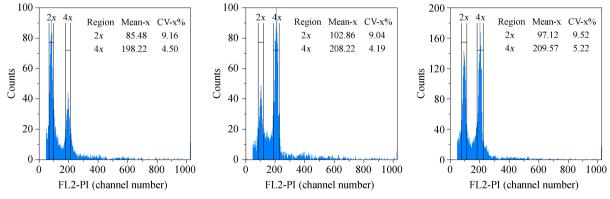


Fig. 5 Estimation of nuclear DNA content by using flow cytometry. (A) Simultaneous analysis of nuclei isolated from standard diploid species (Salix gracilistyla) and from S. cavaleriei; (B) Simultaneous analysis of nuclei isolated from standard diploid species (S. gracilistyla) and from S. × heteromera; (C) Simultaneous analysis of nuclei isolated from standard diploid species (S. gracilistyla) and from S. matsudana

in Salix \times heteromera, S. cavaleriei, and S. matsudana Nucleotide positions in the aligned internal transcribed spacer (TS) sequences

						Sequence	e region, ge	Sequence region, genotype number, and nucleotide positions	r, and nucleo	tide position	SI				
	Number	Number			ITS1	1.					ITS2			IIS	Average
Species	of	ot	_	2	3	4	5	9	7	8	6	10	11	repeats	mean
	specimens	ciones	47-50	98	99-104	126	184	219	450	485	492	290	599		uisiance
Salix cavaleriei	3	28	AGCT	Т	M	T+C	Т	T+G	C	C	G	A	T+C	9	0.003
$S. \times heteromera$	'n	48	Y	$^{\mathrm{T+C}}$	M	T+C	T+C	T+G	T+C	$^{\mathrm{T+C}}$	A+G	A+G	T+C	6	0.007
S. matsudana	8	26	Y	T+C	M	Т	T+C	G	T+C	T+C	A+G	A+G	Τ	∞	0.004
	- 2						Sec	Sequence region and nucleotide positions	and nucleotid	e positions					
Species	Number of	to :		atpB-rbcL	pcT		ш	matK	rbcL	7			T-D-T	T	
	specimens		58	141	220	241		79	333	452	96	66-96	210	382	714-742
S. cavaleriei	3		A	A	Т	C		G	О	Т		ı	A	1	W
$S. \times heteromera$	S		A	A	T/-	C		G	С	T		1	A	1	W
S. matsudana	3		ı	C	Ш	T		A	Α	C		K	ı	Т	I
K=ATAT; W=TCAATAGAATGAACAGTTTTTTGAAATTG	AATAGAATGA	ACAGTTTTT	TGAAATTG												

3 Discussion

The biparental inherited nrDNA ITS variation of the putative hybrid Salix × heteromera and its suspected parents S. cavaleriei and S. matsudana were investigated. Our results showed that concerted evolution is not completed in these three species. Both intraspecific and intra-individual polymorphisms were detected for all the three species. Multiple nrDNA repeats were common at interspecific, intraspecific, and intraindividual levels, arising both from organismal processes such as hybridization and polyploidization and by genomic processes such as gene and chromosome segment duplication and various forms of homologous and non-homologous recombination (Alvarez and Wendel, 2003). The putative hybrid $S. \times heteromera$ showed both intraspecific and intraindividual polymorphism of nrDNA ITS region, and all the variant nucleotide sites were perfectly additive (i.e., chimera) of its suspected parents S. matsudana and S. cavaleriei (Table 3, Fig. 4). Stochastic genomic processes mentioned above are not likely to produce such an additive nucleotide pattern. Moreover, the ITS sequence diversity of $S. \times heteromera$ (0.007) was considerably higher than those of S. matsudana (0.004) and S. cavaleriei (0.003). Further, S. \times heteromera occurs only where both S. cavaleriei and S. matsudana are present; it is a morphological intermediate between S. cavaleriei and S. matsudana as indicated by the features of leaf, stamen, ovary stipe, and PCA analysis of morphological traits. Taken together, these findings suggest that $S. \times heteromera$ is a natural hybrid between S. cavaleriei and S. matsudana.

Salix matsudana and S. cavaleriei also showed intraspecific and intraindividual polymorphism in the ITS region. Considering that both species are tetraploid, as shown by our flow cytometry analysis, it is possible that both species are of allopolyploid (hybrid) origin and have merged and maintained both ITS repeat types of their progenitors. Divergent repeats of ITS have been reported to be clearly maintained over tens of millions of years (Baumel et al., 2001; Alvarez and Wendel, 2003).

Flow cytometry analysis revealed that $Salix \times$ heteromera is tetraploid and thus is a homoploid hybrid. In nature, homoploid hybrid speciation might be a rare phenomenon; in that, parent species must be closely related for the homoploid hybrid to be viable, or the differences in chromosome arrangement might affect mitosis (Rieseberg, 1997; Coyne and Orr, 2004; Abbott and Rieseberg, 2012). The parental species S. cavaleriei and S. matsudana belong to Salix subgenus Salix, and sections Wilsonia K.S. Hao ex C. F. Fang & A. K. Skvortsov and Salix, respectively. A molecular phylogenetic study showed that these two sections belong to different clades (Azuma et al., 2000; Chen et al., 2010), indicating that S. cavaleriei and S. matsudana are not closely related species. This is consistent with their morphological differences. For example, they showed differences in stamen number, which is an important character in systematics of Salix (Ding, 1995a; Skvortsov, 1999; Argus, 2010); S. cavaleriei has 6 -12 stamens, and S. matsudana has 2 stamens. They also differed ecologically: S. matsudana is somewhat adapted to arid and semiarid environment (Skvortsov, 1999) and grows along rivers or depressions amidst sand in basin and plain areas, whereas S. cavaleriei is a typical riparian species, requiring high moisture, and only occurs around streams and can even grow in water. Our field observations revealed that many individuals of $S. \times heteromera$ are big trees and apparently viable, and the hybrids share their habitat closely with S. matsudana; however, the coexistence of the hybrid and its parents can also be observed at one site (e.g., along a stream). Moreover, the flowering time of $S. \times hetero$ mera overlaps with that of its parents. These findings indicate that $S. \times heteromera$ is not significantly divergent in ecology from its progenitors. All homoploid hybrid species that have been documented thus far are ecologically divergent from their parental species (Abbott and Rieseberg, 2012). In addition, the restricted distribution of S. \times heteromera (only occurs when both its parents are present) suggests

that it is sterile or its progeny is sterile and/or inviable and therefore lacks the ability to expand beyond its distribution range (i. e., it is not a true species). However, this needs to be further investigated.

Chloroplast DNA is usually maternally transmitted in angiosperms (Mogensen, 1996), and sequencing can be used to determine hybrid origin (Zhou et al., 2008). Our results from the four chloroplast sequence datasets indicated that the hybridization is unidirectional, i.e., asymmetric, with Salix cavaleriei as the maternal parent. Hybridization tends to be unidirectional at sites where one of the parental species is rare, because the pollens delivered to the rare species would consist mainly of pollen from the common species (Rieseberg, 1995: Zhou et al., 2008). In the habitat of our putative hybrid, S. cavaleriei is rare and S. matsudana is more abundant, and $S. \times heteromera$ shared its habitat closely with S. matsudana. Under such circumstance, the rare species is usually the maternal parent of the hybrid (Rieseberg, 1995); this would have been the possible reason for the asymmetric hybridization observed.

Hybridization is also often associated with habitats that have been altered by anthropogenic disturbance (Abbott and Rieseberg, 2012). This might be the case in our current study; Salix matsudana is not documented in Floras as native species in Yunnan province (Ding, 1995b; Fang et al., 1999). This species has long been used as an ornamental plant and cultivated almost all over the temperate zone in the world. It is widely cultivated around farmlands, villages, and deforestation areas. The cultivated plants might escape and naturalize; indeed, natural population of S. matsudana is at present quite common in north-central Yunnan. Therefore, crossing occurred between the previously allopatric, common and widespread S. matsudana and the rare and narrowly distributed S. cavaleriei. Hybridization between common and rare species might have severe consequences for the rare species: if fitness of the hybrid is lower relative to either parental

species or even sterile (i.e., outbreeding depression), the growth rate of the rare species may decline below that required for replacement (i. e., demographic swamping). If, however, the hybrid is fertile or fitness decline is negligible, the hybrid tends to backcross more frequently with the common species and may displace the rare species (i. e., genetic assimilation) (Rieseberg and Wendel, 1993; Rhymer and Simberloff, 1996; Ellstrand et al., 1999: Wolf et al., 2001). In our case, S. cavaleriei did not seem to be seriously threatened by its hybridization with the exotic S. matsudana at present, because although S. cavaleriei is rare and highly requires a moist habitat, some of its distribution range is not invaded by S. matsudana (e.g., Tengchong of Yunnan province and south Sichuan province). However, if S. matsudana continues to invade the distribution range of S. cavaleriei by means of human intervention and becomes numerically superior compared to S. cavaleriei, S. cavaleriei might become increasingly endangered or even extinct through genetic assimilation and/or outbreeding depression, regardless of the fitness of hybrids. Therefore, our study indicated that willows should be introduced for purposes such as ornamentation and afforestation with caution, since they may cross with indigenous willow species and increase the risk of rare species becoming extinct.

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